# Chapter 4

# Convergence in metric spaces

### 4.1 Definition of a convergent sequence

**Definition 4.1.1.** (Convergent sequence). Let (X, d) be a metric space. We say that a sequence  $(x_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\subset X$  converges to the limit  $x\in X$  if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists N(\epsilon) \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \ge N(\epsilon) \Longrightarrow d(x_n, x) < \epsilon.$$
 (4.1)

In that case we write  $x_n \longrightarrow x$  as  $n \longrightarrow \infty$ , or  $\lim_{n \longrightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ 

If a sequence has no limit we say that it diverges.

Remarks 4.1.2. 1. Comparing with the definition of a convergent sequence of real numbers from Real Analysis we see that a sequence  $(x_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\subset X$  converges to the limit  $x\in X$  if and only if the distance between  $x_n$  and x converges to zero in  $\mathbb{R}$ , i.e.

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} d(x_n, x) = 0$$

in the sense of Real Analysis.

2. The limit of a convergent sequence is unique. Indeed, assume that  $(x_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  converges simultaneously to  $x\in X$  and to another limit  $y\in$ 

X. Then using the triangle inequality we obtain

$$d(x,y) \le d(x,x_n) + d(x_n,y) \longrightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \longrightarrow \infty.$$

Since the right hand side converges to zero, we conclude that d(x, y) = 0 and hence x = y.

**Definition 4.1.3.** (Bounded set). Let (X, d) be a metric space and  $E \subset X$  be a subset of X. We say that the set E is bounded in X if there exists a ball  $B_R(x) \subset X$  such that  $E \subset B_R(x)$ . If the set E is not bounded then it is said to be unbounded. We say that a sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subset X$  is bounded if  $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is a bounded subset of X.

**Example 4.1.4.** 1. Let  $X = \mathbb{R}$ . The [a, b] is bounded.

- 2. Let  $X = \mathbb{R}^2$ . The  $(a, b) \times (a, b)$  is bounded.
- 3. Let  $X = \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $\mathbb{N}$  is unbounded.
- 4. Let  $X = \mathbb{R}^2$ . Then  $(a, b) \times \mathbb{R}$  is unbounded.

**Theorem 4.1.5.** Let (X,d) be a metric space. If a sequence  $(x_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  converges to a limit in X then  $(x_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is bounded.

Using the notion of convergence we could give an important characterisation of closed sets in terms of convergent sequences.

**Theorem 4.1.6.** Let (X,d) be a metric space. A set  $F \subset X$  is closed if and only if every convergent sequence  $(x_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \subset F$  has its limit in F, that is

$$(x_n) \subset F \text{ and } \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = x \Longrightarrow x \in F$$
 (4.2)

**Definition 4.1.7.** (Closure of a set). Let (X, d) be a metric space and  $E \subset X$  a subset of X. The closure of the set E is the set

$$\operatorname{cl}(E) = \operatorname{int}(E) \cup \partial E$$

It is clear that the closure of a set E is always a closed set. The closure cl(E) can be characterised as the smallest closed set which contains E. In particular, if E is a closed set then cl(E) = E.

**Definition 4.1.8.** (Dense set). Let (X, d) be a metric space and  $E \subset X$  a nonempty subset of X. The set E is dense in X if cl(E) = X.

**Example 4.1.9.** Let  $X = \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $\operatorname{cl}((0,1)) = [0,1]$  and  $\operatorname{cl}(\mathbb{Q}) = \mathbb{R}$ . In particular, the set of all rational numbers  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Example 4.1.10.** Let  $B_R(a)$  be an open ball in the Euclidean space  $\mathbb{R}^N$ . Then

$$cl(B_R(a)) = \bar{B}_R(a) = \{x \in X | d(x, a) \le r\}$$

In particular, closed ball  $\bar{B}_R(a)$  is a closed set in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ .

## 4.2 Convergence of sequences in $\mathbb{R}^N$

To avoid confusion between coordinates of the vector in  $\mathbb{R}^N$  and elements of the sequence of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ , we sometime will be using the upper-script index notation  $(x^{(n)})_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  to denote a sequence of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ , where

$$x^{(n)} = (x_1^{(n)}, x_2^{(n)}, \cdots, x_N^{(n)})$$

For each  $i = 1, \dots, N$ , the sequence  $(x_i^{(n)})_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subset \mathbb{R}$  is called the sequences of *i*-coordinates of the sequence  $(x^{(n)})$ .

The next result shows that a sequence of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^N$  converges if and only if each sequence of coordinates converges individually.

**Proposition 4.2.1.** (Convergence in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ ). Let  $\mathbb{R}^N$  be the N-dimensional vector space with the standard Euclidean metric  $d_2(x, y)$ . A sequence

$$(x^{(n)})_{n\in\mathbb{N}} = (x_1^{(n)}, x_2^{(n)}, \cdots, x_N^{(n)})_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$$

converges in  $\mathbb{R}^N$  to the limit

$$x = (x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_N)$$

i.e. 
$$\lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} x^{(n)} = x$$
, if and only if  $\lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} x_1^{(n)} = x_1$ ,  $\lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} x_2^{(n)} = x_2$ ,  $\cdots$ ,  $\lim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} x_N^{(n)} = x_N$ 

Remark 4.2.2. The same statement is true if instead of the Euclidean metric  $d_2(x,y)$  we consider convergence in  $\mathbb{R}^N$  with respect to the taxi-cab metric  $d_1(x,y)$  or  $\infty$ -metric  $d_\infty(x,y)$ . In fact, one can show that the following three statements are equivalent:

- (a) A sequence  $(x^{(n)}) \subset \mathbb{R}^N$  converges to a vector  $x \in \mathbb{R}^N$  in the metrics  $d_1$
- (b) A sequence  $(x^{(n)}) \subset \mathbb{R}^N$  converges to a vector  $x \in \mathbb{R}^N$  in the metrics  $d_2$
- (c) A sequence  $(x^{(n)}) \subset \mathbb{R}^N$  converges to a vector  $x \in \mathbb{R}^N$  in the metrics  $d_{\infty}$  Because of the equivalence of (a), (b) and (c) we say that the metrics  $d_1$ ,  $d_2$ ,  $d_{\infty}$  on  $\mathbb{R}^N$  are equivalent, in the sense that they have the same classes of convergent sequences.

**Example 4.2.3.** Consider the following sequences in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Try to sketch on the plane  $\mathbb{R}^2$  geometrical location of several points of the sequences in examples (1)-(5)

1. 
$$(x^{(n)})_{n \in \mathbb{N}} = (\frac{1}{n}, 1 - \frac{1}{n}).$$

2. 
$$(x^{(n)})_{n\in\mathbb{N}} = (\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n^2}).$$

3. 
$$(x^{(n)})_{n \in \mathbb{N}} = (\frac{1}{n}, \sqrt{n}).$$

4. 
$$(x^{(n)})_{n \in \mathbb{N}} = (\cos(\frac{1}{n}), \sin(\frac{1}{n})).$$

5. 
$$(x^{(n)})_{n\in\mathbb{N}} = (\sin(n\pi), \cos(n\pi)).$$

### 4.3 Cauchy Sequences

**Definition 4.3.1.** (Cauchy sequence). Let (X, d) be a metric space. A sequence  $(x_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\subset X$  is called a Cauchy sequence if  $\forall \epsilon>0, \exists N(\epsilon)\in N$  such that

$$\forall n, m \in \mathbb{N}, n \ge N(\epsilon), m \ge N(\epsilon) \Longrightarrow d(x_m, x_n) < \epsilon$$

**Theorem 4.3.2.** Let (X, d) be a metric space. Then every convergent sequence is also a Cauchy sequence.

**Definition 4.3.3.** (Complete metric space). Let (X, d) be a metric space. We say that X is complete if every Cauchy sequence  $(x_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\subset X$  converges to the limit in X.

**Example 4.3.4.** The real line  $\mathbb{R}$  with the standard metric  $d_1(x,y) = |x-y|$  is complete.

**Example 4.3.5.** The set of all rational numbers  $\mathbb{Q}$  with the standard metric  $d_1(x,y) = |x-y|$  is not complete.

**Example 4.3.6.** The N-dimensional vector space  $\mathbb{R}^N$  with any of the metrics  $d_1, d_2, d_\infty$  is complete. This follows from the completeness of the real line  $\mathbb{R}$  via Proposition 4.2.1

#### 4.4 Compact sets

**Definition 4.4.1.** (Compact set). Let (X, d) be a metric space and  $K \subset X$  a subset of X. We say a set K is compact if every sequence  $(x_n) \subset K$  contains at least one convergent subsequence  $(x_{n_k})$  and

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} x_{n_k} \longrightarrow x \in K.$$

Remark 4.4.2. In particular, we say that a metric space (X, d) is compact if every sequence  $(x_n) \subset X$  contain at least one convergent subsequence.

**Example 4.4.3.** Every bounded closed interval  $[a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$  is compact. This is the Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem. However, the real line  $\mathbb{R}$  with the standard metric is not compact. For instance, the sequence  $x_n = n$  does not contain any convergent subsequence.

**Theorem 4.4.4.** Let (X, d) be a metric space. If a nonempty subset  $K \subset X$  is compact then K is bounded and closed.

**Theorem 4.4.5.** (Heine-Borel). Let  $\mathbb{R}^N$  be the Euclidean space. A subset  $K \subset \mathbb{R}^N$  is compact if and only if K is bounded and closed.

**Corollary 4.4.6.** Let  $\mathbb{R}^N$  be the Euclidean space. Then any bounded sequence  $(x_n) \subset \mathbb{R}^N$  has a convergent subsequence.

Remark 4.4.7. The same statement is true if instead of the Euclidean metric  $d_2(x,y)$  we consider the taxi-cab metric  $d_1(x,y)$  or  $\infty$ -metric  $d_{\infty}(x,y)$ . This is a consequence of the fact that all three metrics on  $\mathbb{R}^N$  are equivalent, see Remark 4.2.2

**Proposition 4.4.8.** Let (X,d) be a metric space and  $K \subset X$  be a compact subset from X. If  $M \subset K$  is closed then M is compact. 6

**Proposition 4.4.9.** (from H.W-oct-1-sol. page 2) In  $\mathbb{R}^N$  the intersection of arbitrary many compact set is compact

**Proposition 4.4.10.** Let (X, d) be a metric space.

- 1. If  $K_1, K_2, \dots, K_n \subset X$  is a finite collection of compact sets, then the union  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n K_i$  is also compact.
- 2. If  $X \supset K_1 \supset K_2 \supset \cdots \supset K_n$  is a nested sequence of nonempty compact sets then the intersection  $\bigcap_{i \in \mathbb{N}} K_i$  is nonempty.